

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF NEURAL MODELS FOR POLYPHONIC MUSIC SEQUENCE TRANSDUCTION

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ABSTRACT

Automatic transcription of polyphonic music remains a challenging task in the field of Music Information Retrieval. One under-investigated point is the post-processing of time-pitch posteriograms into binary piano rolls. In this study, we investigate this task using a variety of neural network models and training procedures. We introduce an adversarial framework, that we compare against more traditional training losses. We also propose the use of binary neuron outputs and compare them to the usual real-valued outputs in both training frameworks. This allows us to train networks directly using the F-measure as training objective. We evaluate these methods using two kinds of transduction networks and two different multi-pitch detection systems, and compare the results against baseline note-tracking methods on a dataset of classical piano music. Analysis of results indicates that (1) convolutional models improve results over baseline models, but no improvement is reported for recurrent models; (2) supervised losses are superior to adversarial ones; (3) binary neurons do not improve results; (4) cross-entropy loss results in better or equal performance compared to the F-measure loss.

1. INTRODUCTION

Automatic music transcription (AMT) is a core MIR problem [25]. Its aim is to extract what is played in a music signal into a human-readable score. Much of the literature has focused on the intermediate goal of detecting when and which notes were played, also called multi-pitch detection and note-tracking. It is a long-discussed topic, yet, unless it is constrained to a specific instrument and instrument model [17], it remains a challenging task, in particular in the case of polyphonic music [2].

Many AMT systems use a two-step workflow [3, 13]. First an *acoustic model* estimates the pitches present in each audio frame and produces a non-binary posterioqram representation over time and pitch. Then a post-processing step is applied to obtain a binary piano-roll representation,

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or a MIDI-like note-based representation (we focus here on piano-roll representation). The former task has been extensively discussed in the literature, but the latter has received much less attention.

Recent transcription and transduction models are commonly neural networks trained with a traditional maximum likelihood framework that assumes pitches to be independent [20, 23, 41]. Although this provides a simple and stable training loss, it can lead to unrealistic estimates as the model tries to cover all the modes of the output probability distribution [35]. More recently, Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) [18] were proposed to rectify this issue, as they do not rely on an explicit likelihood and tend towards realistic outputs with high likelihood under the true output distribution. In GANs, a *generator* network makes its outputs as realistic as possible while a *discriminator* classifies examples as real (from the training set) or fake (created by the generator), which in turn gives feedback to improve the generator. GANs have made a breakthrough in high-quality image generation and reconstruction [8], and were subsequently also applied to symbolic music generation [39] and singing voice separation [36]. For AMT, GANs could help produce better transcriptions by taking into account correlations across both time and pitch.

The output of neural networks used in previous approaches [20, 23, 41] is real-valued to enable training by gradient descent. To obtain a piano roll at test time, the network outputs are binarised with a threshold as a post-processing step. However, this can lead to overly-fragmented notes, as in [41], when the output values are close to the threshold. Binary neurons [4] offer an alternative by integrating the binarisation of outputs into training while still allowing gradient back-propagation.

In this paper, we perform a comparative study of various neural-network-based methods for polyphonic sequence transduction, focusing on classical piano music. We systematically compare the influence of certain design choices, namely the network architecture, the training loss and the type of outputs. In particular, we introduce a GAN framework and assess its performance by comparing it to simpler training losses such as cross-entropy. We also evaluate whether binary neurons can bring improvements in this context as suggested for symbolic music generation [15] by making generator outputs binary and thus more similar to the real examples. In addition, we propose a method to directly use the F-measure as a training objective by using binary neurons. Each of these methods is evaluated with both a recurrent neural network (RNN) and a novel



convolutional network as transduction model. These design choices are evaluated using inputs from two different multi-pitch detection systems (a piano-specific [23] and a multi-instrument acoustic model [5]). All experiments are conducted using a representation based on 16th note time steps, which can improve results [41] and reduce the input dimensionality compared to regular timesteps in the order of 10ms and thus the required training and test time.

Our paper is organised as follows. In Section 2, we describe previous work. Section 3 presents the dataset used. In Section 4, we detail the architecture used for our various sub-models, and the training objectives are described in Section 5. We present our evaluation metrics in Section 6, and describe our experiments and their results in Section 7. Finally, we discuss the limitations of our proposed methods along with future directions in Section 8.

2. RELATED WORK

2.1 Polyphonic Music Sequence Transduction

AMT acoustic models yield a posterioqram, which is a real-valued time-pitch representation that reflects the likelihood of pitches being present at different points in time, either as probabilities (between 0 and 1) or as saliencies (unbounded). Polyphonic music sequence transduction aims to convert these posterioqrams into a binary piano-roll representation (also called *note tracking*). Aside from simply thresholding the posterioqram, one of the most popular methods involves pitch-wise Viterbi decoding [31], where each pitch is considered as a 2-state (on/off) hidden Markov model (HMM).

More recently, a series of neural network-based methods has been proposed. In [6], a model combining a Restricted Boltzmann Machine (RBM) with a recurrent neural network (RNN) was proposed for symbolic music modelling. It was later used for AMT [7], using an audio representation from a Deep Belief Network as input. The same architecture was also used as a language model for piano-roll post-processing [34], to evaluate the likelihood of symbolic sequences rather than using it as a transduction model. In [41], a simpler Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) model achieved improved performance when using musically-relevant time steps, but mostly because resulting outputs are quantized to the ground truth metrical grid.

2.2 Generative Adversarial Networks

Since their introduction in 2014, GANs have enjoyed considerable attention [18]. The main appeal in using GANs is that the model’s likelihood only needs to be implicitly defined [29]. In contrast, defining a suitable and tractable likelihood function is difficult for complex output spaces such as the space of natural images, so simplistic assumptions are often made about the output density. In our context, a GAN could generate a coherent segment of music in one pass through the network, while other methods either have to assume independent outputs for each pitch and time-frame [17,20,23,41], or condition each output dimension on all previous ones in an auto-regressive fashion [34], which requires a computationally intensive decoding process.

Applications of GANs are increasing rapidly and cover a wide variety of fields [32,36]. For music modelling, this includes the C-RNN-GAN [28], which uses an RNN to output note events with continuous duration, onset time, pitch and velocity, instead of the discrete values used in the MIDI representation. The MuseGAN [14] generates discrete piano-roll music representations. Here, a continuous-output generator is used and the training data is simply treated as being continuous despite its discrete nature.

GANs can also be used for conditional prediction models [26,35,36], where the output space is complex and high-dimensional and defining a suitable loss function is difficult. For these reasons we investigate GANs for AMT in this paper.

2.3 Binary neurons

Training a network with discrete outputs is challenging because back-propagation does not yield gradients from non-differentiable operations. Various methods have been proposed to solve that issue, such as REINFORCE [27,37], and the straight-through estimator [4,21]. Binary neurons were used with GANs in the context of music generation [15], as it is very easy for the discriminator to separate binary, real samples from generated ones that have real values between 0 and 1. This can make generator training ineffective, as the discriminator’s feedback focuses on only making the real-valued generator outputs more binary. They are reported as improving over a similar system with non-binary outputs [15] by being easier to train and yielding better results. More generally, binary outputs are appealing in our context, as they integrate the thresholding process into the network, removing the need for thresholding real-valued network outputs to obtain a binary piano-roll representation at test time and finding an optimal threshold value on an extra validation set.

3. DATASET

For our experiments, we use the MAPS dataset [16]. It contains MIDI files of polyphonic piano music, along with aligned audio renditions, generated using synthetic pianos and a Disklavier acoustic piano. It contains 238 pieces of classical music (18h total duration), with some pieces performed more than once, on different pianos. We split it into training, validation and test sets similarly to [23], where the test set features only acoustic piano and the training set only synthetic piano recordings, to obtain realistic performance estimates. We also ensure there is no overlap of pieces between the training and test set, and create a validation set by removing 10 random examples from the training set.

Rhythm annotations for this dataset are available in the A-MAPS annotations [40]. We use these annotations, in order to run our experiments using a time step of a 16th note. There are two main reasons for that choice. First, it was shown in [41] that using a 16th note time step can improve transcription performance over time steps of a fixed frame duration in seconds. Moreover, using 16th note time steps instead of fixed steps (usually on the order of 10 ms) results in a much more compact representation and faster training,

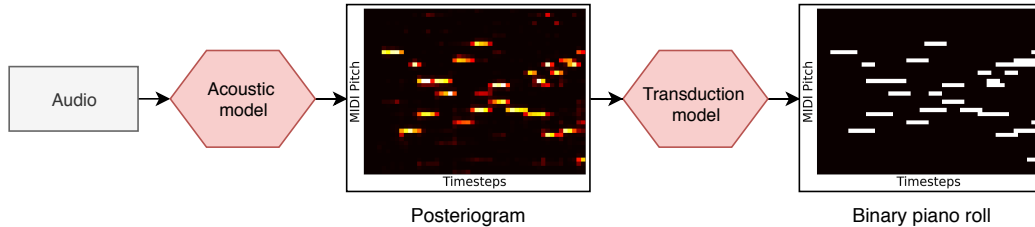


Figure 1. Overview of the whole transcription process. We focus on the second step.

enabling large-scale experiments. However, it introduces some imprecision when dealing with extra-metrical notes and tuples. In addition, the required beat positions are not usually available as annotations and would thus have to be obtained with a beat-tracking algorithm. Since we use beat annotations in our study, lower results than the ones reported here might be obtained in the presence of beat-tracking errors.

4. MODELS

The general workflow for our task is described in Figure 1. First an acoustic model produces a non-binary posterioqram. Then, this posterioqram is converted into a binary piano roll by a transduction model. Although this study focuses on the latter, we present both in this section.

4.1 Acoustic models

We use our transduction models with two different kinds of acoustic model outputs. The first model, described in [23], is a convolutional neural network (CNN) operating on spectrograms with logarithmically-spaced frequency bins and log-magnitude. It was designed specifically for piano transcription, and was trained on the MAPS dataset. At each time step, it outputs predictions for $N_p = 88$ pitches as probabilities between 0 and 1. We call this model *Kelz*.

The second model, described in [5], also uses CNNs, with a custom input representation that stacks harmonically-shifted Constant-Q transform representations of the signal. It was designed as a general multi-pitch detection system, and was trained on a multi-instrument dataset that includes piano. Besides, it has a frequency resolution of 20 cents, and has a smaller frequency span than a piano keyboard. In order to adapt it for piano transcription, we average the frequency bins that correspond to a given MIDI pitch. In this case, $N_p = 73$. It has to be noted that this averaging leads to lower activations. We call this model *Bittner*.

In both cases, outputs are then downsampled to a 16th note time step. To do so, we use the best-performing method in [41] referred to as *step*: let M and N be the original and downsampled posterioqrams respectively, p a pitch, n a 16th note step, and i and j the time steps corresponding to n and $n + 1$ respectively, we have:

$$s = i + \text{round}\left(\frac{j-i}{4}\right), \quad N[p, n] = \frac{\sum_{k=i}^s M[p, k]}{s-i+1}$$

4.2 Transduction model architectures

Our transduction models take the output of an acoustic model as input and are trained independently from the acoustic models. We compare two different kinds of transduction models. The first model is a Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) network [22] with the same architecture as described in [41]. It has N_p inputs per time step, one hidden layer with 100 hidden nodes, followed by a fully connected layer with N_p outputs.

The second model is a newly-designed CNN that uses a series of convolutions with filter sizes (1) 5×5 , (2) 5×1 with dilation of 12×1 , and (3) 5×15 , to capture both frequency and temporal correlations. A 1×1 convolution processes the combined output from convolutions (2) and (3), whose output is combined with the output from convolution (1) using another 1×1 convolution. While all above convolutions have 32 channels and use LeakyReLU activations, the final 1×1 convolution has only one filter and does not use an activation. Both models are closely matched in terms of the number of parameters at about 80,000.

4.3 Real-valued vs. Binary outputs

We use two different strategies to convert the unnormalised, real-valued outputs obtained from the model. The first one is real-valued sigmoid outputs: the output of the network for each pitch is simply sent through a sigmoid. At test time, the outputs are binarised using a single threshold for all pitches, chosen to maximise frame-wise \mathcal{F} on the validation set. The second strategy employs deterministic binary neurons, as described in [14]. Here, the output of the network for each pitch is sent through a sigmoid, and then thresholded at 0.5. This thresholding operation, however, is not differentiable, which makes it impossible to use gradient descent as training method. Therefore, we use the sigmoid-adjusted straight-through estimator [12], that was shown to provide good results [14]. It ignores the thresholding operation during back-propagation and instead multiplies the current gradient by the derivative of the sigmoid function.

4.4 Baseline methods

We compare our system against two baseline post-processing methods. The first binarises all outputs using a threshold optimised as explained in Section 4.3 (as opposed to using a fixed threshold of 0.5 as done in [23]). The second one, introduced in [31], and later used in various systems [10, 11], is to model each pitch by an on/off HMM, and then decode the most likely sequence of hidden states using the Viterbi algorithm. The initial probabilities and

transition parameters are computed from ground truth annotations, one set of parameters per pitch. The observations for ‘on’ and ‘off’ states are modelled as beta distributions, each fitted to the acoustic model outputs on the validation dataset. These distributions are fitted using data from all pitches and shared between them due to the rarity of extremely low and high pitches.

5. TRAINING OBJECTIVES

The networks are trained using the Adam optimiser [24] on sequences of 64 timesteps. For cross entropy and F-measure, we use a learning rate of 10^{-2} , as advised in [41]. With GANs, the learning rate is 10^{-3} for the discriminator, and $5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ for the generator. Early stopping is used: after no improvement in validation framewise \mathcal{F} for 30,000 iterations (checked every 1000 iterations), training is stopped and the best model is kept.

5.1 Cross-entropy loss

As a commonly used baseline objective, we use the binary cross-entropy (CE) loss averaged over all entries \hat{y}_t in the predicted piano-roll \hat{y} as loss for the transducer model:

$$\mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim \mathbb{P}_d} \frac{1}{N_t N_p} \sum_{p=1}^{N_p} \sum_{t=1}^{N_t} y_{t,p} \log \hat{y}_{t,p} + (1 - y_{t,p}) \log(1 - \hat{y}_{t,p}) \quad (1)$$

where $y_{t,p} \in \{0, 1\}$ indicates whether a note at timestep $t \in \llbracket 1, N_t \rrbracket$ with pitch index $p \in \llbracket 1, N_p \rrbracket$ is active, and \mathbb{P}_d denotes the joint distribution of acoustic model outputs and transcriptions. While this loss is conceptually simple and allows fast and stable training, it relies on the strong assumption that each note activity can be determined independently from all others, although some note combinations are more likely to occur than others. Since the model cannot assign high probability to specific note combinations, only to individual notes, it would assign high probability to all involved notes. Unrealistic note combinations might then be obtained when independently sampling from these probabilities.

5.2 F-measure loss

In most cases, transduction and transcription models are trained with CE, but finally evaluated with frame- or note-wise F-measure. To close this gap between training and testing, we propose maximising the F-measure directly during training. However, this requires a binary piano roll instead of real-valued network outputs. As a solution, we employ binary neurons introduced in Section 4.3. By replacing \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{R} in the formula for \mathcal{F} by their complete expressions (see Section 6), simplifying the equation, and using the two identities $\text{TP}(t) = \sum_{p=1}^{N_p} y_{t,p} \cdot \hat{y}_{t,p}$ and $\text{FN}(t) + \text{FP}(t) = \sum_{p=1}^{N_p} |y_{t,p} - \hat{y}_{t,p}|$ where $\text{TP}(t)$, $\text{FP}(t)$ and $\text{FN}(t)$ are the numbers of true positives, false positives and false negatives at time step t , respectively, we obtain

$$\mathcal{F} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{N_t} \sum_{p=1}^{N_p} 2 \cdot y_{t,p} \cdot \hat{y}_{t,p}}{\sum_{t=1}^{N_t} \sum_{p=1}^{N_p} [2 \cdot y_{t,p} \cdot \hat{y}_{t,p} + |y_{t,p} - \hat{y}_{t,p}|]} \quad (2)$$

as our F-measure loss, which only makes use of differentiable operators. The only exception is the absolute value function, whose gradient is undefined only at 0, which occurs in the above equation if $y_{t,p} = \hat{y}_{t,p}$. Since the model output $\hat{y}_{t,p}$ does not need to change in that case, we assign it a gradient of 0. In conjunction with binary outputs, we can thus use gradient descent to maximise \mathcal{F} . It has to be noted that a similar, non-binary version of F-measure was proposed as training loss in [30]. We only investigate the binary F-measure here.

5.3 Adversarial loss

We adapt the improved Wasserstein GAN [19] framework for the adversarial loss to our conditional generation case, by using a discriminator network $D_\theta : x, y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that takes a transcription y as input with the corresponding acoustic model output x as condition. It is trained to output scalar values that minimise the loss (see Equation (3) in [19]):

$$L(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathbb{P}_r} [D_\theta(x, G_\phi(x))] - \mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \mathbb{P}_d} [D_\theta(x, y)] + \lambda \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathbb{P}_r, \hat{y} \sim \mathbb{P}_i(x)} [(\|\nabla_{\hat{y}} D_\theta(x, \hat{y})\|_2 - 1)^2], \quad (3)$$

where \mathbb{P}_r denotes the distribution of real acoustic model outputs. The third term regularises the discriminator network responses to stabilise generator training. It is weighted by the scalar hyper-parameter λ (we use $\lambda = 10$), and involves drawing $\mathbb{P}_i(x)$, which yields $\hat{y} = r \cdot G_\phi(x) + (1 - r) \cdot y$ with a weight r uniformly chosen from $[0, 1]$ that interpolates between the generator output $G_\phi(x)$ and the ground truth transcription y for the input x .

During training, the generator is updated once using the negative of the first term in (3) as loss, before the discriminator is trained on (3) for 5 iterations to re-estimate the Wasserstein distance between real and generator samples.

As discriminator, we use a convolutional network similar to [42]. First, a 5×1 convolution with dilation of 12 and 16 channels is computed to capture relationships between octaves, and concatenated to the input features for further processing. Afterwards, a 3×3 convolution with a stride of two is applied four times, using 16, 32, 64, and 128 filters, respectively. The downsampled feature map is processed by a dense layer with 16 nodes, and by another dense layer with a single output and linear activation. All layers except the final one use LeakyReLU activations.

6. EVALUATION METRICS

We evaluate the performance of our system using the common MIREX transcription metrics [1], in both frame-wise and note-wise configurations. With *frame metrics*, the output and the ground truth are compared frame-by-frame. The metrics are computed directly on the 16th-note-timestep piano-rolls. With *note metrics*, the system output and the ground truth are viewed as a list of notes. A note is correctly detected if its pitch matches the ground truth and its onset is within a tolerance threshold of the correct onset. The threshold usually used is 50ms, however, since we operate on 16th note timesteps, we require that onset times correspond exactly to the ground truth. The offsets are usually

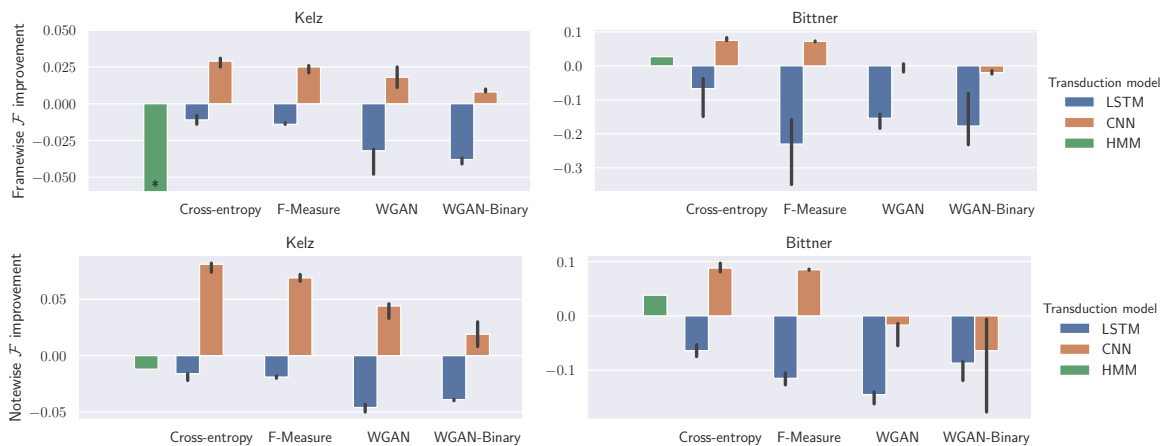


Figure 2. Model comparison across training objectives, transducer and acoustic models. Bars correspond to median improvement over simple thresholding, error bars correspond to maximum and minimum improvement across runs. * means that the bar was truncated for readability purposes.

not taken into account as they are difficult to estimate properly with percussive sounds such as piano notes. We use the `mir_eval` implementation [33] to find the maximal match between the two lists. In both cases, the precision (\mathcal{P}), recall (\mathcal{R}) and F-measure (\mathcal{F}) are computed as per [1]. These metrics are computed for each recording, and then averaged over sets of recordings.

7. RESULTS

We evaluate every possible combination of acoustic and transduction model as well as training loss and output type (continuous or binary neurons). To account for variability in training, we run every experiment 3 times and report results of the model that reaches the median frame \mathcal{F} performance. To assess differences in performance across different conditions, we perform paired Wilcoxon signed-rank tests using the piece-wise results from each median model. All median results are given in Table 1 for Kelz, and Table 2 for Bittner. We also plot the absolute improvement over simple thresholding for frame and note \mathcal{F} in Fig. 2. The error bars show the best and worst of the 3 runs.

7.1 Transduction model and acoustic model

The two transduction models (CNN and LSTM) clearly behave very differently. Most of the time, the CNN model improves the results compared to simple thresholding. On average, across all configurations, the CNN provides an average increase of 2.56% frame-wise and 3.39% note-wise \mathcal{F} . In particular, the CE-trained CNN improves for Kelz by 3.1% frame and 8.2% note \mathcal{F} , while for Bittner, it reaches 8.3% frame and 9.7% note \mathcal{F} . This difference in improvement can be explained by the fact that the Kelz acoustic model overfits a lot on the training set, reaching around 92% frame \mathcal{F} on the training set alone, but only around 81% on the validation set. As a result, it is more difficult for transduction models to generalise with the Kelz model as input, as training and test data differ. The Bittner model is much more stable across subsets with 62% frame \mathcal{F} on the training set, and 63% on the validation set, as it

was trained on a completely separate dataset.

On the other hand, the LSTM model performs worse than thresholding in every configuration. This contradicts the improvement in frame \mathcal{F} reported in [41] achieved using an LSTM, although one could argue that the experimental setup is quite different regarding the LSTM inputs, the lengths of training sequences, and dataset splits. We tried using training sequences of 256 instead of 64 timesteps and also tried a bi-directional LSTM to check whether a lack of context explains our result, but results did not improve. Since we observe much better training set than test set performance (e.g. the LSTM with CE loss on the Bittner model achieves about 80% on training but only 57% frame \mathcal{F} on the test set), we suspect that strong overfitting is the sole reason. This effect might be amplified as training and test sets do not share any pieces or pianos, and synthetic pianos are used for training and real pianos for testing. Since the partitions used in [41] do share pianos, the improvement reported therein could be partly due to overfitting to the particular pianos featured in the training set. Our CNN appears to generalise better in this regard.

7.2 Comparing training objectives

Since our LSTM model does not generalise to the test set, we exclude it from the following comparisons between training objectives. It appears that supervised losses consistently outperform adversarial losses ($p < 10^{-9}$ for frame and note \mathcal{F}). Additionally, GANs performance varies more between training runs than with supervised losses. This contradicts the expected result that GANs should be more effective. Using binary neurons also failed to improve the performance of our system. In particular, in the context of GANs, non-binary neurons are significantly better than binary neurons for both frame and note \mathcal{F} ($p < 0.02$), except for Bittner in terms of note \mathcal{F} ($p = 0.33$). This shows that the findings of [14] do not generalise to our application, at least when we compare with strong CE-based models. GANs might require more data to realise their potential, better ways of training with discrete outputs, or more perceptually meaningful evaluation metrics to capture the improvement in

Metric		Thresh	HMM	Cross-entropy		F-measure		WGAN		WGAN-Binary	
				LSTM	CNN	LSTM	CNN	LSTM	CNN	LSTM	CNN
Frame	\mathcal{F}	67.9	49.6	66.8	70.8	66.5	70.4	64.7	69.7	64.1	68.7
	\mathcal{P}	70.9	74.1	72.6	73.4	70.2	72.2	72.5	74.1	74.4	73.9
	\mathcal{R}	66.7	40.1	63.2	69.6	64.6	70.1	59.8	67.2	57.8	65.5
Note	\mathcal{F}	45.0	43.8	43.4	53.2	43.1	51.6	40.4	49.4	41.1	46.9
	\mathcal{P}	44.0	82.4	42.8	50.9	39.3	50.7	39.5	50.1	40.5	44.6
	\mathcal{R}	47.5	31.3	45.6	57.1	49.4	53.9	43.0	50.0	43.6	51.0

Table 1. Results as percentages for median models with Kelz input. Bold corresponds to best values across models.

Metric		Thresh	HMM	Cross-entropy		F-measure		WGAN		WGAN-Binary	
				LSTM	CNN	LSTM	CNN	LSTM	CNN	LSTM	CNN
Frame	\mathcal{F}	58.8	61.5	52.1	66.3	35.8	66.0	43.4	58.8	41.1	56.8
	\mathcal{P}	59.6	52.6	48.0	68.5	26.9	69.3	43.9	58.7	35.9	61.9
	\mathcal{R}	61.5	79.6	60.5	66.1	65.4	65.3	47.7	60.9	50.8	56.4
Note	\mathcal{F}	44.6	48.4	39.3	53.4	31.9	53.1	30.1	43.2	36.2	44.0
	\mathcal{P}	42.2	62.5	35.7	49.3	25.2	50.7	27.6	40.8	34.4	44.8
	\mathcal{R}	48.6	40.4	45.1	59.9	45.6	57.3	34.5	47.2	39.2	44.5

Table 2. Results as percentages for median models with Bittner input. Bold corresponds to best values across models.

output quality. Additionally, improvements or alternatives to binary neurons might be needed to stabilise training further, as we observed high variance in training loss between batches compared to using a CE loss.

We find that using our F-measure loss results in slightly worse \mathcal{F} than when using the CE loss with Kelz (decrease of 0.4 in frame- and 1.6 in note-wise \mathcal{F} , $p < 0.02$), but no significant differences with Bittner. This might be explained by the use of 16th note timesteps that strongly smooths the inputs and outputs, reducing the risk of fragmented notes substantially. Also, the binary outputs could make training more difficult due to the approximations used to overcome the non-differentiability problem; and because we perform threshold tuning on the validation dataset for the CE setting, thereby giving the CE model the chance to fit its parameters more to the validation set, whereas it is only used for early stopping with the F-measure loss.

The theoretical advantages of binary neurons do not translate into performance improvements, but they are conceptually elegant since they do not require a separate threshold tuning after training. Overall, the basic CE loss remains the best performing for our task.

7.3 Comparison against baseline

We compare the best-performing model on both inputs (i.e. CNN trained with CE loss) with both baseline systems. CNN post-processing improves substantially over both baselines, for both acoustic models, with both frame and note \mathcal{F} ($p < 0.01$). Surprisingly, the HMM post-processing yields significantly worse results than simple thresholding on Kelz for frame \mathcal{F} , but not significantly for note \mathcal{F} . It seems to be too conservative, outputting a note only when it is long enough and with high enough activation, a problem already noted in [41]. On Bittner however, HMM post-processing significantly improves results over thresholding ($p < 10^{-9}$ for frame \mathcal{F} , $p = 0.08$ for note \mathcal{F}). This can be attributed to the fact that the thresholded outputs contain a particularly

high proportion of fragmented notes, because activations are very low in general, with many values around the threshold. The HMM successfully smooths them.

8. CONCLUSION

In this study, we proved that post-processing a posterioqram with a convolutional network model can improve transcription performance compared to several baseline methods. Various other tasks include similar discretisation problems, such as polyphonic sound event detection [9] or automatic drums transcription [38], and could probably benefit from this finding. We showed that some theoretically-motivated approaches did not actually result in increased performance as evaluated by the F-measure: WGANs do not perform better than a simple CE loss, binary neurons do not improve WGANs for this task, and training directly with the F-measure as loss is not better than using CE and then thresholding outputs as a post-processing step. We also showed that the results obtained in [41] actually do not generalise to the case where the recording conditions of test and training datasets differ, highlighting the importance of carefully selecting dataset partitions in future work.

This study resulted in many unexpected results that prompt us to investigate further. More transduction architectures could be investigated, such as C-RNNs. Data augmentation (e.g. pitch transposition) could provide sufficient data to make GANs worthwhile over CE. The F-measure loss could also improve further with other methods for back-propagating through the binary neurons. The fact that binary neurons seemed to improve results with Kelz and the LSTM model is also a good motivation to keep exploring their use with various architectures. Finally, all these configurations were evaluated with standard metrics. Especially for the WGAN models, it would be interesting to see whether the performance increases in ways that are not captured by the F-measure metric but turn out to be perceptually important in listening tests.

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